Further comparison of additive and multiplicative coarse grid correction

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Abstract

We consider the situation where a basic preconditioner is improved with a coarse grid correction. The latter can be implemented either additively (like in the standard additive Schwarz method) or multiplicatively (like in the balancing preconditioner). In [Numer. Lin. Alg. Appl., 15 (2008), pp. 355–372], Nabben and Vuik compare both variants, and state that a theoretical comparison of the condition numbers is not possible: whereas it is admitted that the condition number is in most cases smaller with the multiplicative variant, they provide an example for which the converse is true. Here we show that the multiplicative variant has in fact always lower condition number when the basic preconditioner is appropriately scaled. On the other hand, we also show, again assuming an appropriate scaling, that the condition number of the additive variant is at worst a modest multiple of that of the multiplicative variant. Hence both approaches are qualitatively equivalent. Eventually, we show with some examples that both the upper and lower bounds on the condition number of the additive variant are sharp: it can be in some cases equal to the condition number of the multiplicative variant, and in other cases arbitrarily close to the aforementioned modest multiple of this latter value.

Key words. multigrid, domain decomposition, convergence analysis, coarse grid correction, preconditioning

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1 Introduction

We consider the iterative solution of large sparse $n \times n$ linear systems

$$A\,\mathbf{u} \;=\; \mathbf{b} \tag{1.1}$$

with symmetric positive definite (SPD) coefficient matrix A. It is nowadays common to combine the conjugate gradient method [11] with some SPD preconditioner M that approximates the system matrix while remaining cheap to construct and invert, see, e.g., [1, 9, 23]. The convergence rate then mainly depends on the spectral condition number

$$\kappa(M^{-1}A) \;=\; \frac{\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A)}{\lambda_{\min}(M^{-1}A)}\;,$$

where $\lambda_{\max}(\cdot)$ and $\lambda_{\min}(\cdot)$ stand for the smallest and the largest eigenvalue, respectively.

In practical applications, A has often some very small eigenvalues, and standard preconditioners may fail to move them sufficiently away from 0; i.e., $M^{-1}A$ has still some fairly small eigenvalues. This may be cured by supplementing the action of the preconditioner with a coarse grid correction step, in which an approximate solution of the residual equation is computed on a coarser grid. This combination of basic preconditioner and coarse grid correction is at the root of multigrid methods (e.g., [10, 26]), where the basic preconditioner is called *smoother*. In the context of these methods, the number of coarse unknowns is generally large and the coarse grid system is therefore solved only approximately, in fact combining again a smoothing iteration and a coarse grid correction (the latter is thus used recursively).

Coarse grid correction is also used in a number of other methods. Often, the (first) coarse grid has then sufficiently few unknowns to make affordable an exact solution of the corresponding system (no need for recursive use). This includes domain decomposition methods (e.g., [22, 24, 25]), where the coarse grid has usually only a few unknowns per subdomain, and also approaches where one attempts to approximate directly the eigenvectors of $M^{-1}A$ corresponding to small eigenvalues [8, 28, 29, 30]; see also [20, 21].

Now, to define a corse grid correction one needs to set up a $n \times n_c$ rectangular matrix which "prolongates" on the fine grid a vector defined on a coarse grid with n_c unknowns. Ideally, the range of P should span a subspace containing good approximations of the eigenmodes that are converging slowly with the basic preconditioner M. Given P, the coarse grid correction step is implemented with

$$B_c \;=\; P(P^T A\,P)^{-1}P^T\;.$$

There are basically two ways to combine it with the preconditioner M at hand. One is *additive* and amounts to use as inverse preconditioner (that is, as approximation to A^{-1})

$$B_a \;=\; \omega\,M^{-1} \;+\; P(P^T A\,P)^{-1}P^T\;, \tag{1.2}$$

where ω is a scaling parameter. This approach is followed in, e.g., [20, 21] and in standard two-level additive Schwarz methods [3, 5, 6, 22, 24, 25]. Often, the scaling is applied

instead to the coarse grid correction term. This is however unimportant when B_a is used as preconditioner for the conjugate gradient method since then only the relative scaling of both terms matters.

On the other hand, a *multiplicative* correction is obtained by first considering a stationary iteration with the basic preconditioner followed by a coarse grid correction step. The resulting iteration matrix is

$$T_m \;=\; (I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)\,(I - \omega\, M^{-1} A)\;,$$

and the equivalent inverse preconditioner is the matrix B_m such that $I - B_m A = T_m$, which yields

$$B_m \;=\; P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T \;+\; \omega\, M^{-1} \;-\; \omega\, P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A\, M^{-1}\;. \tag{1.3}$$

This preconditioner is used, e.g., in the two-level hybrid Schwarz method as defined in [24, Algorithm 2.3.5]. It is nonsymmetric and can therefore not be used with the conjugate gradient method. A symmetric version is obtained by performing the coarse grid correction twice; that is, defining the preconditioner B_{m_s} such that $I - B_{m_s} A = T_{m_s}$ with

$$T_{m_s} \;=\; (I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)\,(I - \omega\, M^{-1} A)\,(I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)\;.$$

This yields

$$B_{m_s} \;=\; P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T \,+\, \omega\,(I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)\, M^{-1}\,(I - A\, P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T)\;, \tag{1.4}$$

which is used in the two-level hybrid Schwarz method as defined in [25, eq. (2.11)], and in the balancing Neumann-Neumann domain decomposition methods [12, 13, 24, 25]. Because the form (1.4) first appeared in the latter context, this variant is sometimes called balancing preconditioner. B_{m_s} is in general more costly to apply than B_m but, as pointed out in [25, Section 2.5.2], if one uses the conjugate gradient method with $\mathbf{u}_0 = P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T \mathbf{b}$ as initial approximation, all residual vectors are kept orthogonal to the range of P and hence the application of B_{m_s} requires in practice only the multiplication by $\omega\,(I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)\, M^{-1}$.

An important remark here is that $B_m A$ and $B_{m_s} A$ have identical eigenvalues. Indeed, for any pair of square matrices F and G, $F\,G$ and $G\,F$ have same set of eigenvalues (see, e.g., [19, Lemma A.1] for a proof covering the case where both F and G are singular). Therefore, $T_{m_s} = T_m(I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)$ has same eigenvalues as $(I - P(P^T A\, P)^{-1} P^T\, A)\, T_m = T_m$. Since B_{m_s} is positive definite, the eigenvalues of $B_m A$ are therefore real and positive, and one has in particular

$$\lambda_{\max}(B_m A) \;=\; \lambda_{\max}(B_{m_s} A) \quad , \quad \lambda_{\min}(B_m A) \;=\; \lambda_{\min}(B_{m_s} A)$$

and

$$\kappa(B_m A) \;=\; \kappa(B_{m_s} A)\;.$$

In the following, we formulate our results with respect to the eigenvalues of $B_{m_s}A$, but one should keep in mind that they apply verbatim to B_mA as well.

Now, in the context of multigrid methods, the number of coarse grid unknowns is relatively large, so that the coarse grid correction step is much more costly than the application of the basic preconditioner or smoother. Hence the symmetrization is rather performed by applying smoothing iterations both before and after the coarse grid correction step. If M_1 is the pre-smoother and M_2 the post-smoother, the iteration matrix for a two level method is then

$$T_{mg} \;=\; (I - M_2^{-1}A)\,(I - P(P^TA\,P)^{-1}P^T\,A)\,(I - M_1^{-1}A)\;,$$

and the corresponding inverse preconditioner B_{mg} is defined from $I - B_{mg}A = T_{mg}$. Here, one may note that T_{mg} has same eigenvalues as

$$(I - P(P^TA\,P)^{-1}P^T\,A)\,(I - M_1^{-1}A)\,(I - M_2^{-1}A) \;=\; (I - P(P^TA\,P)^{-1}P^T\,A)\,(I - M^{-1}A)\;,$$

where M is the matrix such that

$$(I - M^{-1}A) \;=\; (I - M_1^{-1}A)\,(I - M_2^{-1}A)\;; \tag{1.5}$$

that is, M is the equivalent preconditioner which brings in one step the effect of post-smoothing followed by pre-smoothing. It follows that $B_{mg}A$ has same eigenvalues as B_mA (and $B_{m_s}A$) with M defined in this way. Therefore, the analysis below also indirectly applies to the more standard form of multigrid preconditioning. Note that this requires M SPD, which is in fact a natural condition to ensure that B_{mg} is SPD, see, e.g., [7, 18].

Now, the purpose of this work is to compare the condition numbers $\kappa(B_aA)$ and $\kappa(B_{m_s}A)$ associated with the additive and multiplicative variants. In, e.g., [25], it is suggested that the multiplicative variant has always lower condition number, but in [17] an example is provided showing that the converse can be true. Here we solve the issue by taking into account the scaling parameter ω. It is indeed clear that multiplicative iteration matrices like T_m or T_{m_s} can be effective only if the basic preconditioner is properly scaled. In fact, we prove that the multiplicative variant has always lower condition number if $\omega\,\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A)$ is equal to or slightly larger than 1. As discussed below, this condition is not very strict and naturally satisfied (with $\omega = 1$) by most preconditioners of practical interest.

On the other hand, to our knowledge, there is so far no general bound on the condition number of the additive variant that would depend only on the condition number of the multiplicative variant. Hence one could not guarantee anything for an additive implementation using solely the convergence analysis of a method based on the multiplicative implementation (like, e.g., the analysis of the balancing Neumann-Neumann domain decomposition method [25]). In this paper, we show on the contrary that $\kappa(B_aA)$ is at worst a modest multiple of $\kappa(B_{m_s}A)$. Here again, this requires a proper scaling of the basic preconditioner, namely that $\omega\,\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A) \approx 1$, the theoretical optimum $\omega = \lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A)^{-1}$ yielding in particular $\kappa(B_aA) \leq 4\,\kappa(B_{m_s}A)$.

We have thus a two-sided bound on $\kappa(B_a A)$. Eventually, we provide examples showing that $\kappa(B_a A)$ may be arbitrarily close to either limit, and hence that both upper and lower bounds are sharp.

Note that, besides the additive and multiplicative implementations referred above, a coarse grid correction may also be used for *deflation* [8, 15, 28, 29, 30]. This amounts to decompose the solution of the linear systems in two components, one in the range of P and one in a complementary subspace. Since the former is easy to compute, the preconditioned system can be *deflated*; that is, the iterative solution process is ran in a restricted subspace, in which it has better (effective [1]) condition number. We do not discuss this approach here because we have little to add to the extensive comparison by Nabben and Vuik with the additive and multiplicative variants [15, 16]. In fact, it is shown in [16] that the conjugate gradient method combined with either the deflation or the symmetrized multiplicative preconditioner B_{m_s} produces identical iterates if the latter is used with the special starting vector $\mathbf{u}_0 = P(P^T A P)^{-1} P^T \mathbf{b}$ mentioned above, whereas the zero vector is used as initial approximation for deflation. Moreover, the spectrum of $B_{m_s} A$ is the spectrum of the deflated system with, in addition, the eigenvalue 1. Hence both approaches are very close to each other. Regarding the additive variant, the main result in [15] is a proof that deflation always leads to lower condition number. A detailed analysis is also given for the special case where the range of P coincides with an invariant subspace of A.

The paper is organized as follows. Our general analysis is developed in Section 2, and is supplemented in Section 3 with the detailed investigation of two particular examples.

2 Analysis

The following theorem contains our main result.

Theorem 2.1 *Let A, M be $n \times n$ SPD matrices and let P be a $n \times n_c$ matrix of rank $n_c < n$. Let B_a, B_{m_s} be given by (1.2), (1.4), respectively. Define*

$$\mu \;=\; \lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A) \;\cdot\; \max_{\mathbf{z}\in\Re^n\setminus\{0\}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T M\big(I - P(P^T M\, P)^{-1} P^T\, M\big)\,\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\,\mathbf{z}}\;. \tag{2.1}$$

One has $\mu \geq 1$, and, setting $\lambda_M = \lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A)$:

1. *there holds*

$$1 \;\leq\; \lambda_{\max}(B_{m_s}A) \;\leq\; \max(1\,,\,\omega\,\lambda_M)\;, \tag{2.2}$$

$$\lambda_{\min}(B_{m_s}A) \;=\; \min\left(1\,,\,\frac{\omega\,\lambda_M}{\mu}\right) \tag{2.3}$$

and

$$\max\left(\frac{\mu}{\omega\,\lambda_M}\,,\,1\right) \;\leq\; \kappa(B_{m_s}A) \;\leq\; \max\left(\frac{\mu}{\min(1,\omega\,\lambda_M)}\,,\,\omega\,\lambda_M\right)\;; \tag{2.4}$$

[1] the deflated system has n_c times the eigenvalue 0, which plays however no role in the solution process

2. there holds

$$\max(1\,,\,\omega\,\lambda_M) \;\leq\; \lambda_{\max}(B_a A) \;\leq\; 1+\omega\,\lambda_M\;, \tag{2.5}$$

$$\frac{\omega\,\lambda_M}{\mu} \;\geq\; \lambda_{\min}(B_a A) \;\geq\; \frac{1}{1+\omega\,\lambda_M}\,\frac{\omega\,\lambda_M}{\mu} \tag{2.6}$$

and

$$\frac{\mu}{\min(1,\omega\,\lambda_M)} \;\leq\; \kappa(B_a A) \;\leq\; \mu\,\frac{(1+\omega\,\lambda_M)^2}{\omega\,\lambda_M}\;; \tag{2.7}$$

3. there holds

$$\kappa(B_a A) \;\leq\; \kappa(B_{m_s} A)\;(1+\omega\,\lambda_M)^2 \tag{2.8}$$

and, if $\omega\,\lambda_M \leq \mu$ *,*

$$\kappa(B_a A) \;\geq\; \kappa(B_{m_s} A)\;. \tag{2.9}$$

Proof. Firstly, $\mu \geq 1$ because

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu &= \max_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T A\,\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T M\,\mathbf{z}} \;\cdot\; \max_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T M\big(I - P(P^T M\,P)^{-1}P^T\big)\,\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T A\,\mathbf{z}} \\
&\geq \max_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T M\big(I - P(P^T M\,P)^{-1}P^T\big)\,\mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T M\,\mathbf{z}} \\
&= 1\;.
\end{aligned}$$

Next, by Theorem 2.1 in [19], $B_{m_s} A$ has n_c times the eigenvalue 1, and the remaining $n-n_c$ eigenvalues are the inverse of the nonzero eigenvalues of $\omega^{-1}\,A^{-1}\,M\big(I-P(P^T M\,P)^{-1}P^T\,M\big)$. This yields straightforwardly (2.3) and the left inequality (2.2); the right inequality (2.2) is proved in [19, Corollary 2.1]. Combining (2.3) and (2.2) yields

$$\begin{aligned}
\max\left(\frac{\mu}{\omega\,\lambda_M}\,,\,1\right) \;\leq\; \kappa(B_{m_s} A) \;&\leq\; \max(1\,,\,\omega\lambda_M) \;\cdot\; \max\left(1\,,\,\frac{\mu}{\omega\,\lambda_M}\right) \\
&= \max\left(1\,,\,\omega\,\lambda_M\,,\,\frac{\mu}{\min(1,\omega\,\lambda_M)}\right)\;,
\end{aligned}$$

hence (2.4) since $\mu \geq 1$.

On the other hand, $\lambda_{\max}(B_a A)$ cannot be smaller than the maximum of $\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A)$ and $\lambda_{\max}(P\,A_c^{-1}P^T A)$ $(=1)$, and cannot be larger than their sum, hence (2.5). To prove (2.6), let $A_c = P^T A\,P$, $M_c = P^T M\,P$ and $S_c = A_c + \omega^{-1} M_c$. One has

$$\begin{aligned}
&\big(\omega M^{-1} + P\,A_c^{-1}P^T\big)\,\big(\omega^{-1}M - \omega^{-2}M\,P\,S_c^{-1}P^T M\big) \\
&\qquad = I + \omega^{-1}P(A_c^{-1} - S_c^{-1} - \omega^{-1}A_c^{-1}M_c S_c^{-1})P^T M \\
&\qquad = I + \omega^{-1}P\,A_c^{-1}(S_c - A_c - \omega^{-1}M_c)S_c^{-1}P^T M \\
&\qquad = I\;,
\end{aligned}$$

hence $B_a^{-1} = \omega^{-1}M - \omega^{-2} M\, P\, S_c^{-1} P^T M$ (which could also be concluded from the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula, see, e.g, [9, p. 50]). Moreover,

$$\omega^{-1}(\omega M_c^{-1} - S_c^{-1})\, S_c\, A_c^{-1}\, M_c \;=\; \omega^{-1}(\omega M_c^{-1} S_c - I)\, A_c^{-1}\, M_c \;=\; I \;,$$

showing that

$$\omega M_c^{-1} - S_c^{-1} \;=\; \omega\,(S_c\, A_c^{-1}\, M_c)^{-1} \;=\; \omega\,\left(M_c + \omega^{-1} M_c A_c^{-1} M_c\right)^{-1} \;.$$

Therefore, plugging into the above expression of B_a^{-1} the expression of S_c^{-1} that can be deduced from this relation, one obtains

$$B_a^{-1} = \omega^{-1}\left(M - M\, P\, M_c^{-1} P^T M + M\, P\,(M_c + \omega^{-1} M_c A_c^{-1} M_c)^{-1} P^T M\right) \;.$$

Hence, for any $\mathbf{z} \in \Re^n \backslash \{0\}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \omega^{-1}\, M\big(I - P\, M_c^{-1} P^T\big)\, \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\, \mathbf{z}} \;&\leq \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, B_a^{-1}\, \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\, \mathbf{z}} \\
&\leq \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \omega^{-1}\, M\big(I - P\, M_c^{-1} P^T\, M\big)\, \mathbf{z} \;+\; \mathbf{z}^T\, M\, P M_c^{-1} A_c M_c^{-1} P^T\, M\, \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\, \mathbf{z}}
\end{aligned}$$

and therefore, since $A_c = P^T A\, P$,

$$\frac{\mu}{\omega\, \lambda_M} \;\leq\; \lambda_{\max}(A^{-1} B_a^{-1}) \;\leq\; \frac{\mu}{\omega\, \lambda_M} \;+\; \|P\, M_c^{-1} P^T M\|_A^2 \;.$$

Since $\lambda_{\max}(A^{-1}B_a^{-1}) = \lambda_{\min}(B_a A)^{-1}$, this shows the left inequality (2.6). The right one also follows because $P\, M_c^{-1} P^T M$ is a projector, hence $\|P\, M_c^{-1} P^T M\|_A = \|I - P\, M_c^{-1} P^T M\|_A$ by Kato's Lemma (e.g., [27, Lemma 3.6]), whereas, letting $\pi = I - P\, M_c^{-1} P^T M$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu \;&=\; \lambda_M \;\cdot\; \max_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, M\, \pi\, \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\, \mathbf{z}} \\
&=\; \lambda_M \;\cdot\; \max_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, M\, \pi\; \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, A\, \pi\; \mathbf{z}}\; \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, A\, \pi\; \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\, \mathbf{z}} \\
&\geq\; \lambda_M \;\cdot\; \min_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, M\, \pi\; \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, A\, \pi\; \mathbf{z}} \;\cdot\; \max_{\mathbf{z}} \frac{\mathbf{z}^T\, \pi^T\, A\, \pi\; \mathbf{z}}{\mathbf{z}^T\, A\, \mathbf{z}} \\
&\geq\; \|\pi\|_A^2 \;.
\end{aligned}$$

Eventually, the inequalities (2.7) are straightforward consequences of (2.5), (2.6), whereas (2.8) is obtained by combining the right inequality (2.7) with the left inequality (2.4), and (2.9) is obtained by combining the left inequality (2.7) with the right inequality (2.4) (the given condition on ω ensuring that the maximum in the right hand side of (2.4) is the first of the two terms, which is just the lower bound in (2.7)). ■

The upper bound (2.4) on $\kappa(B_{m_s} A)$ is minimal for any scaling factor ω such that

$$1 \;\leq\; \omega\, \lambda_M \;\leq\; \mu \;, \tag{2.10}$$

in which case (2.4) becomes

$$\frac{\mu}{\omega\,\lambda_M} \;\leq\; \kappa(B_{m_s}A) \;\leq\; \mu\,. \tag{2.11}$$

With many preconditioners of practical interest, the largest eigenvalue of the preconditioned system $\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A)$ is slightly larger than 1 and the condition (2.10) is satisfied without need for additional scaling. This includes incomplete LU factorization [14] and additive Schwarz preconditioning [22, 24, 25]. More generally, preconditioning techniques primarily aim at clustering the eigenvalues of $M^{-1}A$ around 1, and they are often successful with respect to the largest eigenvalue. In fact, the above condition is restrictive only if μ is pretty close to 1; that is, if the multiplicative preconditioner is extremely efficient when the scaling parameter ω is chosen appropriately. This seldom occurs when the coarse grid is coarse enough to allow an exact solution of the associated system. Regarding the context of multigrid methods, note that M defined from (1.5) with $M_1 = M_2^T$ is such that $\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A) \leq 1$, with $\lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A) \approx 1$ as soon as $I - M^{-1}A$ has some eigenvalue(s) close to 0.

Now, considering also the lower bound on $\kappa(B_{m_s}A)$, it may seem advantageous to select ω such that $\omega\,\lambda_M$ approaches μ. Then, $\kappa(B_{m_s}A)$ may indeed be significantly smaller than its upper bound. However, it follows from Statement 4 of Theorem 2.1 in [19] that $\lambda_{\max}(B_{m_s}A)$ is in fact the maximum between 1 and the largest eigenvalue of $\omega\,A^{1/2}M^{-1}A^{1/2}$ projected orthogonally onto a given $n-n_c$ dimensional subspace. Hence if $M^{-1}A$ has many eigenvalues close to the largest one (as often arises in practice), the upper bounds in (2.2), (2.4) and (2.11) are likely very tight. Then one should not expect to really improve the conditioning by raising ω up to the upper limit indicated in (2.10).

On the other hand, the lower bound (2.7) on $\kappa(B_aA)$ is optimal for any $\omega \geq \lambda_M^{-1}$, whereas the upper bound is minimized when $\omega = \lambda_M^{-1}$. In the latter case, the condition number of the additive preconditioner is at most four times that of the multiplicative variant, which is itself equal to its optimal upper bound μ. As seen on an example below, the scaling factor that effectively minimizes $\kappa(B_aA)$ may however differ from the best theoretical value $\omega = \lambda_M^{-1}$. The additive variant is actually somehow sensitive to the scaling of the basic preconditioner, in fact more than the multiplicative variant for which only the condition (2.10) is important. This is a further advantage of the latter, besides a lower condition number, which is guaranteed as soon as $\omega\,\lambda_M \leq \mu$.

Now, the comparison in (2.8) (2.9) is for the same value of the scaling factor. If one want to compare both variants allowing distinct scaling factors, one sees from (2.7) that $\kappa(B_aA)$ is always larger than μ. Hence the condition number of the additive variant, even with optimal scaling factor ω, can never be smaller than that of the multiplicative variant if one uses the latter with a scaling factor satisfying the condition (2.10).

3 Examples

Here we consider some simplified situations allowing an accurate analysis. We consider prolongations of the form

$$P \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ I \end{pmatrix} \;,$$

where the identity block is of size $n_c \times n_c$. This occurs, e.g., when using a (generalized) hierarchical basis [2, 4, 31]. We further restrict ourselves to $M = I$; that is, the coarse grid correction aims to accelerate simple Richardson iterations. Note that we have then

$$M\big(I - P(P^T M\, P)^{-1} P^T M\big) \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \;. \tag{3.1}$$

Example 1

In the first example, A is block diagonal in this hierarchical basis:

$$A \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & \\ & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \;.$$

This example is thus along the line of the analyses that consider the case where the columns of P are (linear combinations of) the eigenvectors of A corresponding to the the n_c smallest eigenvalues [8, 15, 16, 20, 21]. Here we are slightly more general: we just assume, for the sake of simplicity, that $\lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) \geq \lambda_{\max}(A_{22})$, and hence

$$\lambda_M \;=\; \lambda_{\max}(A) \;=\; \lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) \;.$$

Because of this latter assumption we do not include the case $n = 2$, $n_c = 1$, $\omega\, \lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) = \omega\, \lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) = 100$ and $\omega\, \lambda_{\max}(A_{22}) = \omega\, \lambda_{\min}(A_{22}) = 101$, which corresponds to the example in [17] that demonstrates that additive coarse grid correction may lead to smaller condition number. It is, however, clear that the latter result holds because the condition (2.10) on the scaling is then far from being satisfied.

Now, one may check that

$$\omega^{-1} A^{-1}\; M\big(I - P(P^T M\, P)^{-1} P^T M\big) \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} \omega^{-1} A_{11}^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \;. \tag{3.2}$$

Hence,

$$\mu \;=\; \kappa(A_{11})$$

and further, since the eigenvalues of $B_{m_s} A$ are the inverse of the nonzero eigenvalues of the matrix (3.2) plus n_c times the eigenvalue 1 [19, Theorem 2.1], there holds

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{\max}(B_{m_s} A) &= \max(\omega\, \lambda_{\max}(A_{11})\,,\, 1) \;, \\ \lambda_{\min}(B_{m_s} A) &= \min(\omega\, \lambda_{\min}(A_{11})\,,\, 1) \;. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, one has

$$\kappa(B_{m_s}A) \;=\; \kappa(A_{11}) \;=\; \mu$$

if

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}(A_{11})} \;\leq\; \omega \;\leq\; \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}(A_{11})}\;,$$

which is nothing but the condition (2.10).

On the other hand, one straightforwardly obtains

$$\lambda_{\max}(B_aA) \;=\; \max(\omega\,\lambda_{\max}(A_{11})\,,\,1+\omega\,\lambda_{\max}(A_{22}))\;, \tag{3.3}$$

$$\lambda_{\min}(B_aA) \;=\; \min(\omega\,\lambda_{\min}(A_{11})\,,\,1+\omega\,\lambda_{\min}(A_{22}))\;. \tag{3.4}$$

Hence, one has also

$$\kappa(B_aA) \;=\; \kappa(A_{11}) \;=\; \mu \tag{3.5}$$

if the maximum in the right hand side of (3.3) is the first of the two terms, whereas the minimum in the right hand side of (3.4) is also the first of the two terms. The former condition is met if and only if $\omega \geq (\lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\max}(A_{22}))^{-1}$, and the latter is satisfied if and only if either $\lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) \leq \lambda_{\min}(A_{22})$ or $\omega \leq (\lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\min}(A_{22}))^{-1}$. Considering both requirements altogether, (3.5) thus holds if either

$$\lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\min}(A_{22}) \;\leq\; 0 \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\max}(A_{22})} \;\leq\; \omega$$

or

$$0 \;\leq\; \lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\min}(A_{22}) \;\leq\; \lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\max}(A_{22})$$
$$\text{and} \qquad \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\max}(A_{22})} \;\leq\; \omega \;\leq\; \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\min}(A_{22})}\;.$$

Hence if $\lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\min}(A_{22}) \leq \lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\max}(A_{22})$, the additive variant is as efficient as the multiplicative one for some range of the scaling parameter ω. This range can be wide, but it does not contain the value $\omega = \lambda_M^{-1}$ that optimizes the upper bound in (2.7). For this latter value,

$$\kappa(B_aA) \;=\; \kappa(A_{11})\;\left(1 + \frac{\lambda_{\max}(A_{22})}{\lambda_{\max}(A_{11})}\right)\;.$$

On the other hand, if $\lambda_{\min}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\min}(A_{22}) > \lambda_{\max}(A_{11}) - \lambda_{\max}(A_{22})$, one may check that $\kappa(B_aA) > \kappa(A_{11})$ for any ω.

Example 2

To analyze the next example, the following lemma is useful.

Lemma 3.1 *The matrix*

$$A \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} a\,I & C^T \\ C & b\,I \end{pmatrix}$$

has extremal eigenvalues

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{\max}(A) &= \frac{a+b+\sqrt{(a-b)^2+4\,\rho}}{2}\;, \\ \lambda_{\min}(A) &= \frac{a+b-\sqrt{(a-b)^2+4\,\rho}}{2}\;, \end{aligned}$$

where $\rho = \rho(C^T C)$ *.*

Proof. Let n_1 , n_2 be the size of the top left and bottom right blocks, respectively. Without loss of generality (both blocks play a symmetric role), we assume $n_1 > n_2$. From

$$\det\left(\begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}\right) \;=\; \det(B_{11})\;\det(B_{22} - B_{21}B_{11}^{-1}B_{12})\;,$$

one finds, assuming $\lambda \neq a$,

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A-\lambda\,I) &= \det\big((a-\lambda)I_{n_1}\big)\;\det\big((b-\lambda)I_{n_2} - (a-\lambda)^{-1}C\,C^T\big) \\ &= (a-\lambda)^{n_1-n_2}\;\det\big((a-\lambda)(b-\lambda)I_{n_2} - C\,C^T\big)\;. \end{aligned}$$

Hence λ is an eigenvalue of A that is not equal to a if and only if

$$(a-\lambda)(b-\lambda) - \nu_i \;=\; 0\;,$$

where ν_i is an eigenvalue of $C\,C^T$. Noting that all these ν_i are nonnegative, one sees that the largest λ ($\neq a$) is obtained by taking the largest of the two roots with the largest ν_i , and that the smallest λ is obtained by taking the smallest of the two roots with again the largest ν_i . The proof is completed by noting that a can be neither smaller than the given expression for $\lambda_{\min}(A)$ nor larger than the given expression for $\lambda_{\max}(A)$. ∎

In our second example we consider

$$A \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} (1-\alpha)I & C^T \\ C & (1-\beta)I \end{pmatrix}\;,$$

where C is any matrix of appropriate size and where α , β are positive parameters. We also assume A scaled in such a way that $\lambda_M = \lambda_{\max}(M^{-1}A) = \lambda_{\max}(A) = 1$. With the above lemma, one may check that this holds if and only if

$$\rho \;=\; \rho(C^T C) \;=\; \alpha\,\beta\;. \tag{3.6}$$

On the other hand, with this condition, Lemma 3.1 also implies

$$\lambda_{\min}(A) \;=\; 1-\alpha-\beta\;.$$

Because the present study is restricted to symmetric positive definite matrices, we therefore assume $\alpha + \beta < 1$. We also restrict ourselves to the case $n_c < n - n_c$, where n_c is the size of the bottom right block.

Now, (3.1) implies that

$$\omega^{-1} A^{-1} M\big(I - P(P^T M P)^{-1} P^T M\big) \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} \omega^{-1} S_A^{-1} & 0 \\ * & 0 \end{pmatrix} , \tag{3.7}$$

where $S_A = (1-\alpha)I - (1-\beta)^{-1} C^T C$ is the Schur complement of A taken with respect to its bottom right block, and where the exact expression of the block denoted by a $*$ is unimportant. It follows that

$$\mu \;=\; \frac{1}{\lambda_{\min}\left((1-\alpha)I - (1-\beta)^{-1} C^T C\right)} \;=\; \frac{1}{1 - \alpha - \frac{\alpha\,\beta}{1-\beta}} \;=\; \frac{1-\beta}{\lambda_{\min}(A)} .$$

Further, since the eigenvalues of $B_{m_s} A$ are the inverse of the nonzero eigenvalues of the matrix (3.7) plus n_c times the eigenvalue 1 [19, Theorem 2.1], and since the condition $n_c < n - n_c$ implies that the smallest eigenvalue of $C^T C$ is equal to zero, one obtains

$$\lambda_{\max}(B_{m_s} A) \;=\; \max(1\,,\, \omega(1-\alpha))$$

and

$$\lambda_{\min}(B_{m_s} A) \;=\; \min\left(1\,,\, \frac{\omega\,\lambda_{\min}(A)}{1-\beta}\right) \;=\; \min\left(1\,,\, \frac{\omega}{\mu}\right) .$$

Therefore, since $\mu(1-\alpha) > 1$, selecting ω in the interval

$$\frac{1}{1-\alpha} \;\le\; \omega \;\le\; \mu$$

implies

$$\kappa(B_{m_s} A) \;=\; (1-\alpha)\mu .$$

Here one can thus improve the condition number from the optimal upper bound μ by choosing ω close to its upper limit in (2.10). Note, however, that

$$1 - \alpha \;=\; \lambda_{\min}(A) + \beta \;=\; 1 - (\mu - 1)\lambda_{\min}(A) .$$

Then, figure out that the present example mimics a realistic situation. A coarse grid correction is useful if $\lambda_{\min}(A) = \kappa(A)^{-1}$ is pretty small, and further one should have $\mu \ll \lambda_{\min}(A)^{-1}$ since otherwise the coarse grid correction would not be efficient. This implies $1 - \alpha \approx 1$ and the optimal condition number is not significantly smaller than μ.

On the other hand,

$$B_a \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} \omega\, I & \\ & \left(\omega + \frac{1}{1-\beta}\right) I \end{pmatrix} ,$$

hence, letting $\xi = \sqrt{\omega\left(\omega + \frac{1}{1-\beta}\right)}$,

$$B_a^{1/2} A\, B_a^{1/2} \;=\; \begin{pmatrix} \omega(1-\alpha)I & \xi\, C^T \\ \xi\, C & (\omega(1-\beta)+1)\, I \end{pmatrix} .$$

Lemma 3.1 then yields, with (3.1),

$$\begin{aligned} 2\,\lambda_{\min}^{\max}(B_aA) &= \omega(2-\alpha-\beta)+1 \pm \sqrt{(1+\omega(\alpha-\beta))^2 + 4\,\xi^2\,\rho} \\ &= \omega(1+\lambda_{\min}(A))+1 \pm \sqrt{(1+\omega(\alpha-\beta))^2 + 4\,\omega^2\alpha\,\beta + 4\,\omega\,\alpha\,\beta/(1-\beta)} \\ &= \omega(1+\lambda_{\min}(A))+1 \pm \sqrt{(1-\omega(\alpha+\beta))^2 + 4\,\omega\,\alpha(1+\beta/(1-\beta))} \\ &= \omega(1+\lambda_{\min}(A))+1 \pm \sqrt{(1-\omega+\omega\,\lambda_{\min}(A))^2 + 4\,\omega\,(1-1/\mu)} \;. \end{aligned}$$

Now, assuming again $\lambda_{\min}(A) \ll \mu^{-1}$, one obtains

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{\min}^{\max}(B_aA) &\approx \frac{\omega+1 \pm \sqrt{(1-\omega)^2 + 4\,\omega(1-1/\mu)}}{2} \\ &= \frac{\omega+1}{2}\left(1 \pm \sqrt{1 - \frac{4\,\omega}{\mu(\omega+1)^2}}\right) . \end{aligned}$$

Further, if μ, despite being much smaller than $\lambda_{\min}(A)^{-1}$, remains relatively large, one has

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{\max}(B_aA) &\approx \omega+1 \;, \\ \lambda_{\min}(B_aA) &\approx \frac{\omega}{\mu(\omega+1)} \end{aligned}$$

and hence

$$\kappa(B_aA) \;\approx\; \mu\,\frac{(\omega+1)^2}{\omega} \;;$$

that is, $\kappa(B_aA)$ is close to its upper bound (2.7), and in fact can be made arbitrarily close to it by selecting α, β such that $\lambda_{\min}(A)$ is sufficiently small and μ sufficiently large.

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